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THE HOME ECONOMICS MOVEMENT

PART I

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INTRODUCTION

THE work incumbent upon the organization and development of a department of Home Economics in a state university has sent us again and again to the histories of education for suggestions, inspiration, and guiding principles. The difficulty in finding such data, scattered as it is through the history of education, and the urgent need for it have impelled us to this attempt to collect and interpret, as well as we can, the facts bearing on the origin, development, and present status of Home Economics.

The authors realize that it is a difficult task to trace beginnings, to attempt to separate essentials from non-essentials, or to essay the office of interpreter. Recognizing these difficulties and the imperfection of this work, this brief survey of the situation is sent out to our fellow-workers in the same line with the request that mistakes and omissions be reported in order that the final effort, of which this is only a beginning, may more worthily represent the cause for which it stands.

GENERAL SURVEY

It is evident that the study of any educational movement implies a consideration of the political, social, and industrial conditions of the same period. So a study of Home Economics means a survey of education in general, together with a consideration of the social, industrial, and

economic changes which the years have wrought and their effect, particularly upon the status of woman.

A survey of education in the colonies in their beginnings shows that the colonists were never indifferent to the interests of education. Naturally other needs had to be considered first, but some statement is usually found in the early history which indicates that some kind of provision had been made for education. As early as 1616 the king[1] ordered the Bishop of London to collect money for a college to be founded in Virginia. Two years later when the money had been secured the following instructions were given to Governor Yardley:

"Whereas by a special grant and license from His Majesty, a general contribution hath been made for building and planting a college for the training up of the children of those infidels in true religion, moral virtue, and civility, and for other godliness, we do, therefore, according to a former grant and order, hereby ratify, confirm, and ordain that a convenient place be chosen and set out for the planting of a university at the said Henrico in time to come, and that in the meantime preparation be made for the building of the said college for the children of the infidels according to such instructions as we shall deliver. And we will ordain that ten thousand acres, partly of the lands they impaled and partly of the land within the territory of the said Henrico, be allotted and set out for the endowing of the said university and college with convenient possessions."

When we remember that these pupils were children and savages it is easy to understand that the term university has long been perverted. The same interest

[1] History of Education in the United States, Dexter, p. 2.

regarding education is shown in the history of the Dutch colonies by the following quotation:

"The patroons and the colonists shall, in particular, endeavor to find out ways and means whereby they may support a minister and schoolmaster,[1] that thus the service of God and zeal for religion may not grow cool and be neglected among them, and they shall, for the first, procure a comforter of the sick there."

Dexter says:[2] "Whereas the colonists in Virginia seem to have been actuated by the missionary spirit in the establishment of schools principally for Indians and orphans, and the Puritans in New England recognized at first only a need for higher education for the maintenance of a learned clergy, the Dutch began at the bottom, with their own children. In the matter of popular education they were leaders."

The New England colonies have played a most important part in the development of education. The New England colonists came from homes of refinement and education, and counted among their dearest privileges those of education and religion. Boston Latin School, founded in 1635, followed by Harvard College in 1637, are testimonials of their efforts in behalf of education. The records of the Connecticut colonies show that they were not behind Boston in their educational efforts. Indeed Ezekiel Cheever, whose name is associated with the Boston Latin School, was the first teacher of the school founded in New Haven in 1641.

Hinsdale says:[3] "No state has a more honorable educational record, taken altogether, than Connecticut. No

[1] History of Education in the United States, Dexter, p. 13.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 40.

other of the old states can show such a connected series of public and private transactions relating to schools and education, extending from the foundation of the commonwealth down to the opening of the present educational era, some fifty or sixty years ago. Accordingly, the state affords the best possible opportunity to study continuously the history of popular education from the feeblest beginnings."

The decade from 1639 to 1649 seems to have been most fruitful in New England in producing legislation concerning education. To Dorchester,[1] Massachusetts, belongs the honor of having the first public school in America to be supported by direct taxation. It was organized in May, 1639. The need for industrial training was recognized and some legal provision made for it in Massachusetts as early as 1642. Five years later we have what Professor Dexter[2] calls "the most important school law of our whole history. . . . It contained all the essentials of the purest democracy. The teacher was to be appointed by the people and paid by the people 'to teach all such pupils as shall resort to him to write and read,' without a shadow of class distinction. Nor was the law simply permissive; it was mandatory as well, required that schools be established, and that a fine of £5 await those communities that failed to observe its edicts. There was to be an elementary school for towns of fifty families and a grammar school for those of one hundred families."

While these beginnings in education were made in the seventeenth century, progress was very slow. Lack of organization, of suitably trained teachers, and the neces-

[1] History of Education in the United States, Dexter, p. 28.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 34.

sary compensation left most of the youth unsupplied with the means of education. Practically there were no schools south of Virginia until after the beginning of the eighteenth century. The curricula of those then existing in New England were rather limited.

Inadequate as the training afforded by the reading, writing, and grammar schools was, we must remember it was provided for boys only. Girls might be taught, but they were not to be admitted to the school. It was nearly a century later before anything was done for their education. The Dames' Schools were the only organized agency outside the home, and they are said to have afforded opportunities to learn needlework, dancing, and improvement in manners.

It is interesting to note the steps of progress in the education of girls as evidenced by their admission to the reading and writing schools for one hour a day; of their instruction in the summer in arithmetic, geography, and composition, by their brothers who were Yale students; and the various devices by which they were presented with the crumbs of education.

While New England led in provision for education of its girls, some attention was given to their instruction in other parts of the country. The Moravian school at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, is among the earliest. However, it was not until the last decade of the century that they were granted even a part of the privileges of the grammar schools. The only schools to which girls were admitted in Boston in 1784 were the writing schools held between the forenoon and afternoon sessions of the public school. In 1789 a "great reform" was instituted by organizing a so-called "double-headed school." In-

struction was given in reading and writing. The girls attended reading school in the morning and the boys the writing, and *vice versa*, so separate instruction was maintained. The position of girls as regards educational privileges in New England at this time is shown by the action of the school board of Gloucester, which voted in 1790[1] "that two hours of the eight hours of daily instruction be devoted to girls, as they are a tender and interesting branch of the community, but have been much neglected in the public schools in this town." It appears that they continued to be "tender and interesting" without much opportunity for self-improvement until 1820, the time of the organization of Mrs. Willard's Female Seminary. One year later Catherine Beecher's school was established at Hartford, and the process by which girls were to be transformed from females to women was well begun.

The story of the organization of the Boston High School for Girls is given in the "Report of the Commissioner of Education"[2] as follows:

"On September 25, 1825, the city council appropriated $2,000 for a high school for girls. The school was instituted January 13, 1825, and before the end of the second year had become so popular, the applicants for admission were so numerous, so many parents were disappointed that children were not received, the demand for larger and better accommodations involved such additional expenditures, that the school committee, under the lead of the mayor, Josiah Quincy, met the emergency *by abolishing the school and pronouncing it a failure.* For a period of twenty-three years no attempt was made to revive the subject in either branch of the city council."

[1] Education, Vol. 22, p. 535.

[2] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1871, p. 512.

Meanwhile a new instrument of education had appeared, viz., academies, of which Phillips Academy at Andover and Exeter are noted examples. The institution[1] at Medford, Massachusetts, opened in 1789, "dignified by the title of academy," is said to have been the first for girls in New England. Leicester and Westford were coeducational from the start. Bradford, founded 1803, Adams, 1823, the first incorporated expressly for girls, and Abbot Academy, 1829, are among the most noted.

This brings us into the Revolutionary period of our history, with its attendant industrial and social changes The separation from England made necessary the development of the internal resources of our own country, and in this development each section bore its part. In 1790 the first factory was established in the United States at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, and New England, with its abundant water power, led in manufactories. The South gave its attention to the cotton industry. Abundant fuel in the West and Southwest and the introduction of steam caused mechanical industries to thrive and gave wider range to the arts. Communication and transportation were aided in the forties by the introduction of the telegraph and the cable and the making of canals and railways. These radical changes of environment brought great social and economic changes in the home and in the condition of both men and women, and found expression in changed ideals of education.

The scientific inventions and discoveries and the consequent industrial development made necessary appropriate educational instruments. The content of education was enlarged to include technical training. This demand was

[1] History of Education in the United States, Dexter, pp. 428, 429.

met in part by the introduction of what were called Manual Labor Seminaries, examples of which are Rensselaer, New York, 1824, and the Fellenberg Institute of Windsor, Connecticut. The experiment was tried in a number of states. Many of the institutions failed or continued under other names, but they had their part in enlarging the educational outlook and in dignifying labor.

The founding of Oberlin College for both sexes, 1833; the introduction of a school for engineers, 1835, Troy, New York; the opening of Mount Holyoke Seminary, 1837; the beginning of normal schools, 1839, Lexington, Massachusetts; the founding of the New England Female Medical College, 1842, are illustrations of the broadening educational outlook and the recognition of the need of definite training for special work. The engineer, the teacher, and the nurse were given opportunity for definite professional training.

Educational progress was delayed in the sixties and the energies of the people given to internal dissension and war, but the decade which followed its close was most fruitful in developing new instruments of education. The founding of Vassar College in 1865 was a distinct step in advance for the education of women. To this period belongs also the founding of the Land Grant Colleges, which assured a great advance in the industrial training of both men and women.

The demand for practical education and industrial training is shown in the founding of technical schools, of which the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1865, Lehigh University, 1866, Worcester Polytechnic School, 1868, are among the best known. The year 1870 seems remarkable for the number and variety of its experiments

in education. It was in this year that drawing was made an integral part of the work in the Boston public schools, that Michigan and Illinois Industrial Universities were opened to women, while sewing was introduced into some of the schools of the Eastern states. The idea of manual training received a great impetus in the Centennial Exposition of 1876, and led, in the next decade, to the founding of schools for manual training in most of the large cities, the first being established in St. Louis in 1879.

By the close of the nineteenth century it was evident to the student of educational affairs that the industrial spirit was a mighty factor in education, that courses in applied science and applied art would have a place in the school programs, and that a knowledge of the classics was no longer the only measuring unit for educational standards.

While much is to be said concerning the advantages of being the first to enter a new field, there are compensations for being behind time. The fact that the education of women has lagged behind that of the men has saved much experimenting on the women. The technical schools for men practically settled both the technical and educational value of such training for women.

It is, perhaps, difficult now to appreciate just how much coeducation and the technical schools have meant in the development of the education of women, particularly in work in Home Economics. To be sure, in the early days of coeducation the women were so interested in keeping step intellectually with the men that they sometimes gave themselves too strenuously to the joy of that privilege. Again, applied science for men, as taught in the technical schools, gave a certain definiteness to their

work in science, which was much needed in woman's work in those lines. It is not, perhaps, too much to say that much of woman's early work in chemistry was a more or less indefinite playing with test tubes in which one of three results was expected — a beautiful color, a bad odor, or an explosion She was not long in discovering that her brother took chemistry and bacteriology, not because some one had told him that it ought to form a part of a liberal education, but because he expected to use this knowledge later in his work with soil or in the dairy. Women were thus helped to see that there was a field of applied science for women as well as for men. They realized later that the laws of heat could be illustrated by the kitchen range quite as adequately as by the steam engine, that the life history of bacteria could be studied in many household processes, and that the chemistry of food was in many cases better suited to their needs than that of stones under the title, "determinative mineralogy." Thus there came into being the applied science side of Home Economics. Applied art was a later development.

A certain stigma has always attached to work in Home Economics, born of its association in the West with the agricultural colleges (whose standards of scholarships in the earlier days were not so high as those of the classical schools), and in the East its association with schools of cookery and sewing has lessened its educational value in the eyes of some. The stickler for the classics has found it exceedingly difficult to believe that an engineer or an agriculturist was an educated individual, or that training in Home Economics, reduced to its lowest terms, was not duly represented by baking and millinery. It was, perhaps, this spirit which prompted the president

of Bryn Mawr College to say,[1] "There are, however, not enough elements of intellectual growth in cooking or housekeeping to furnish a very serious or profound course of training for really intelligent women," and the president of another well-known college for women to make the statement[2] that "such courses do not *find* a girl."

There are numerous indications that these statements do not represent the present status of Home Economics in the mind of educators. Recent investigations show that even in our most conservative colleges for women courses in hygiene, chemistry of food, applied art, and economics are being added to the curriculum, and architecture, science, and history are adding their contributions to the work. The sociologist and physiologist find abundant room for their efforts. Departments of Home Economics are being organized in some of the best educational institutions, and those already organized are finding ways and means of strengthening their work. To be sure, the promised land has not yet been reached. Home Economics is not yet classified as is the science of medicine; the particular part of the work that belongs to the public school, the trade school, the institute, the college, and the university is not yet clearly defined.

One explanation of this confusion of ideas and results is found in that statement of Henderson:[3] "If one does not know where one wishes to go, there is small chance of success in devising a process for getting there." Boards of education and trustees have not been sure where they wished the teacher of Home Economics to go. She has

[1] Educational Review, Vol. 21, pp. 6, 7.

[2] Forum, Vol. 30, p. 728.

[3] Education and the Larger Life, p. 136.

not always been prepared to go in the right direction. But on the whole the outlook is very encouraging, and it seems probable that in the near future Home Economics will be recognized as the department in which the student is helped to interpret the facts of science, the theories of color, the beauty of form in ways that make more efficient the individual life, and that results of its work shall be seen in cleaner streets, houses better constructed and more beautifully decorated, food better selected and prepared, higher æsthetic and ethical standards. In short, that it shall have its part in the betterment of life.

So much for the school side of the question. It may be well at this point to consider some agencies outside the school, to gather what suggestions we may from the current literature of that earlier day.

Two names stand out with special prominence as leaders in what they call Domestic Economy, viz., those of Catherine E. and Harriet Beecher. Reference has already been made to the girls' school at Hartford founded by Miss Catherine Beecher. The removal of her family to the West severed her connection with that school. Later a similar one was started in Cincinnati, Ohio, of which Harriet Beecher was principal until her marriage. About 1840 there appeared "A Treatise on Domestic Economy," by Miss Catherine Beecher. The attitude of this woman toward the subject is perhaps best shown by a quotation from the preface of that book:

"The author of this work was led to attempt it, by discovering, in her extensive travels, the deplorable sufferings of multitudes of young wives and mothers, from the combined influence of *poor health, poor domestics, and a defective domestic education.* . . .

"The measure which, more than any other, would tend to remedy this evil, would be to place *domestic economy* on an equality with the other sciences in female schools. This should be done because it *can* be properly and systematically taught (not *practically*, but as a *science*), as much so as *political economy* or *moral science*, or any other branch of study; because it embraces knowledge, which will be needed by young women at all times and in all places; because this science can never be *properly* taught until it is made a branch of *study;* and because this method will secure a dignity and importance in the estimation of young girls, which can never be accorded while they perceive their teachers and parents practically attaching more value to every other department of science than this. When young ladies are taught the construction of their own bodies, and all the causes in domestic life which tend to weaken the constitution; when they are taught rightly to appreciate and learn the most convenient and economical modes of performing all family duties, and of employing time and money; and when they perceive the true estimate accorded to these things by teachers and friends, the grand cause of this evil will be removed. Women will be trained to secure, as of first importance, a strong and healthy constitution, and all those rules of thrift and economy that will make domestic duty easy and pleasant.

"To promote this object, the writer prepared this volume as a *text-book* for female schools. It has been examined by the Massachusetts Board of Education, and been deemed worthy by them to be admitted as a part of the Massachusetts School Library.

"It has been adopted as a text-book in some of our

largest and most popular female schools, both at the East and West."

The table of contents of this book is most interesting. It begins with a chapter on the "Peculiar Responsibilities of American Women"; this is followed by chapters on Healthful Food, Clothing, Cleanliness, Domestic Manners, Care of Infants, Construction of Houses. A fitting climax is reached in the final chapter named, "Miscellaneous Directions," in which the care of a cow, the comfort of guests, smoky chimneys, flower baskets, and waterproof shoes are considered. A glance at this table of contents leaves little doubt in the mind of any one that the field of the varying activities of women has been well covered.

This was followed by a Domestic Receipt Book, whose merits are set forth in its preface as follows:

"*First*, to furnish an *original* collection of receipts, which shall embrace a great variety of simple and well-cooked dishes, designed for every-day comfort and enjoyment.

"*Second*, to include in the collection only such receipts as have been tested by superior housekeepers, and warranted to be *the best*. It is not a book made up in *any* department by copying from other books, but entirely from the experience of the best practical housekeepers.

"*Third*, to express every receipt in language which is short, simple, and perspicuous, and yet to give all directions so minutely that the book can be kept in the kitchen, and be used by any domestic who can read, as a guide in *every one* of her employments in the kitchen.

"*Fourth*, to furnish such directions in regard to small dinner parties and evening company as will enable any young housekeeper to perform her part, on such occasions, with ease, comfort, and success.

"*Fifth*, to present a good supply of the rich and elegant dishes demanded at such entertainments, and yet to set forth so large and tempting a variety of what is safe, healthful, and good, in connection with such warnings and suggestions as it is hoped may avail to promote a more healthful fashion in regard both to entertainments and to daily table supplies. No book of this kind will sell without an adequate supply of the rich articles which custom requires, and, in furnishing them, the writer has aimed to follow the example of Providence, which scatters profusely both good and ill, and combines therewith the caution alike of experience, revelation, and conscience, 'choose ye that which is good, that ye and your seed may live.'

"*Sixth*, in the work on 'Domestic Economy,' together with this, to which it is a supplement, the writer has attempted to secure, in a cheap and popular form, for American housekeepers, a work similar to an English work which she has examined, entitled the *Encyclopedia of Domestic Economy*, by Thomas Webster and Mrs. Parkes, containing over twelve hundred octavo pages of closely printed matter, treating on every department of domestic economy — a work which will be found much more useful to English women, who have a plenty of money and well-trained servants, than to American housekeepers. It is believed that most in that work which would be of any practical use to American housekeepers will be found in this work and the 'Domestic Economy.'

"*Lastly*, the writer has aimed to avoid the defects complained of by most housekeepers in regard to works of this description issued in this country or sent from England, such as that, in some cases, the receipts are so

rich as to be both expensive and unhealthful; in others, that they are so vaguely expressed as to be very imperfect guides; in others, that the processes are so elaborate and *fussing* as to make double the work that is needful; and in others, that the topics are so limited that some departments are entirely omitted, and all are incomplete."

Later the two sisters combined their efforts in the publication of "The American Woman's Home, or Principles of Domestic Science," being "a guide to the formation and maintenance of economical, healthful, beautiful Christian homes." Their attitude and that of the public at this time, 1869, is shown by the following quotation:

"There is at the present time an increasing agitation of the public mind, evolving many theories and some crude speculations as to woman's rights and duties. That there is a great social and moral power in her keeping, which is now seeking expression by organization, is manifest, and that resulting plans and efforts will involve some mistakes, some collisions, and some failures, all must expect."

Previous to this had appeared "Household Science," by E. L. Youmans. It is difficult to find at the present day a clearer or more comprehensive statement of the meaning and content of the term than the one given in the preface to this book, viz.: "Household Science has to do with the agents, the materials, and the phenomena of the household." The numerous articles in periodicals of the period on the "Place of Woman in Education" would seem to indicate that the task of determining her proper educational status was a difficult one.

In recent years many organizations outside the schools

have taken part in the development of the subject — The Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, the Federation of Women's Clubs, The Lake Placid Conference of Home Economics, and numerous philanthropic and industrial associations, as well as the investigations of the United States government along the lines of food and nutrition. Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, the woman who is generally considered as the foremost leader in the development of the subject in these later years, interprets its present status as follows:

HOME ECONOMICS STANDS FOR[1]

"The ideal home life for today unhampered by the traditions of the past.

"The utilization of all the resources of modern science to improve the home life.

"The freedom of the home from the dominance of things and their due subordination to ideals.

"The simplicity in material surroundings which will most free the spirit for the more important and permanent interests of the home and of society."

[1] Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Lake Placid Conference on Home Economics, p. 31.

HOME ECONOMICS IN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES AND STATE UNIVERSITIES

REFERENCE has already been made to the number and variety of educational instruments which had their beginnings about 1870. Technical schools, Land Grant Colleges, Boston and New York Cooking Schools, industrial classes, and art schools all testify to the changed ideals in education which the social and economic changes of the previous decade had wrought. One of the sad results of the war was the removal by death of the head of the household and the consequent necessity which devolved upon the women of the family to become its breadwinners.

These necessary social changes enlarged the sphere of women's activities and responsibilities. New occupations were opened to women. There was a demand for skilled laborers, and this implied an opportunity for training to obtain the necessary skill. Among the educational leaders coeducation was a much discussed question. For purposes of expediency and economy it had been practiced in the public schools, and it found favor in the West, which one writer has designated as "the land of the large and charitable air."

Most of the Western institutions favored coeducation, but there were many even in those institutions who, while they believed equal opportunity should be given to men and women, held that the training of each should be dif-

ferentiated. The report of the Commissioner of Education for 1871 contains the following statement:

"Popular sentiment holds still to separate education, but educators are much divided. On the same side with the Oberlin faculty are A. L. Wayland, D.D., President of Franklin College, Indiana; Dr. Gregory, of the Illinois Industrial University; and W. T. Harris, Superintendent of Public Schools, St. Louis. . . .

"On the other side stands President Raymond, who, without arguing the question, in his beautiful and forcible presentation of the promise of higher education for women, unconsciously sways the mind toward separate education. 'I premise,' says President Raymond, 'that a liberal education for woman is not in all its details precisely the same thing with a liberal education for man. There are ineradicable differences between the sexes, which must be taken into account in determining the conditions of a proper culture for each.'"

The report for 1873, pages 505 to 508, contains an account of the training afforded girls in Germany in domestic economy, and closes with this statement:

"In view of these facts, so common that they must have come under the observation of all, it is to be hoped that these features of special female education will receive full and fair discussion, so that these new studies, with such modifications as experience shall suggest, may be introduced into our high schools and academies for advanced female pupils."

Again, the feelings of others are expressed in this same report in these words, "Care also must be taken that in the ardor for scholastic training domestic education does not decline"

It is probably as a result of these conflicting sentiments that departments of household science were opened in the agricultural colleges of the West, and cooking and sewing were introduced in the schools of the East.

PIONEER DEPARTMENTS

Three state institutions are pioneers in this work in the West, viz., Iowa, Kansas, and Illinois. Some confusion exists regarding the dates at which work was begun in these lines. An attempt has been made, in so far as possible, to let those who did the first work tell the story of its beginnings.

Iowa

Iowa seems to have been the first to enter this field. A personal letter from Miss Georgetta Witter, now Professor of Domestic Economy in Iowa State College, gives the following information:

"Iowa State College was opened in March 17, 1869. The real beginning of domestic science in the institution dates back to that time, when the matron, in connection with her work as steward of the boarding department, adopted the so-called Mount Holyoke plan, requiring each young woman to work for two hours per day, under careful supervision, in the dining room, kitchen, or pantry.

"In 1875 Mrs. Mary B. Welsh induced the trustees to open a department of cookery and household arts."

Mrs. Welsh makes the following statement in "A Special Report on Industrial Education in the United States, 1883":[1]

"The first instruction in this department was given

[1] United States Bureau of Education, 1883, p. 278.

in 1872 by a course of lectures to the junior girls on matters connected with housekeeping. In 1877 the trustees added a course in cooking, and provided and furnished a kitchen for the use of the class. For the last four years, therefore, lessons in cooking have been given to the junior class, in connection with lectures on such subjects as house furnishing, care of the sick, care of children, management of help, dress, etc. Physiology and domestic chemistry are carefully taught as a part of the course in domestic economy.

"In 1879 the course was further extended by the addition of sewing and laundry work. These have been taught with fair success for two years. Many of our students, however, have been able to pass them by examination, and it was found difficult to arouse the same degree of interest in either as in cooking. There has been a steadily increasing demand for instruction in the latter, and the course has been reorganized for this year so as to give the cooking lessons to a larger number of students. These lessons were formerly confined to the juniors, on account partly of want of room in the small kitchen provided by the board, and partly on account of lack of drill in chemistry in the preceding years. At the last session of the legislature larger rooms were assigned to the department, and the present plan arranges for progressive lessons to the freshman, sophomore, and junior classes.

"The young women of the freshman class prepare, under my instruction, the noonday meal for one table in the main dining hall, where two hundred students are boarded. The housekeeper furnishes the bill of fare for the day, and sends to the practice kitchen sufficient

material for a dinner for ten persons, which is cooked and served by the teacher and her class. Not more than five work at once, and thus each receives careful supervision and can get actual practice at every lesson. In this way the class is taught plain cooking — how to prepare meats, vegetables, and simple desserts. The dinner cooked at the last lesson is a fair sample of the daily work. It consisted of roast beef, mashed potatoes, stewed tomatoes, and apple dumplings. While the work was going on the teacher explained not only the culinary processes, but told the class also something about the value of beef as a food, the best cuts, how to tell good beef from poor, the marks of disease, something also about the history and food value of the potato and apple, the tests for good flour, and the composition and action of baking powder.

"In order to get time for this minute instruction to so large a number the laundry work and sewing were necessarily abolished, and the sophomores are given the lectures, which have been extended to embrace not only those matters which relate strictly to housekeeping, but more comprehensive information on hygiene, the laws of good breeding, and those things which go to make a home beautiful as well as clean and convenient. The class is required to take notes, and in connection with the lectures do a good deal of careful reading, and write several essays each on the topics treated of.

"Finally, to the juniors is given a more elaborate course in cooking. Great pains is taken in that year to explain as carefully as may be the nutritive value of different foods, tests for adulterations, the combination of the several classes of food in bills of fare so as to be

most valuable, etc. Together with the theory is given thorough practice in both plain and ornamental cookery. Bread and soups are made the subjects of special drill, while salads, side dishes, pastry and cake, carving, boning, and garnishing are also most thoroughly taught. A few lessons are given in the preparation of food for the sick, and these are dwelt on with special emphasis.

"The interest of the students in the department of domestic economy has been constant and lively, while the board of trustees, the college faculty, and the patrons of the school have united in encouraging its development. It is acknowledged to have met a long-existing want, and to have done real service to the young women of the state. It has not only given them manual skill, but it has also increased their respect for all branches of such labor, and added dignity to that part of their life work hitherto considered as menial drudgery. The promise for the future is most encouraging. Stimulated by the enthusiasm of her pupils, strengthened by the good will of her fellow-teachers, and aided by the generous appreciation and liberal policy of the board of trustees, the teacher of domestic economy looks forward with sure faith to the fullest development of her department."

Kansas

Kansas comes next in order of time. Mrs. Nellie Kedzie Jones, for many years the inspiring head of the department in that institution, gives the following data concerning the beginnings of the work there:

"In 1873–74 sewing was first taught in Kansas Agricultural College by Mrs. Cheseldine. In 1875–76 a course of lectures was given by Prof. W. K. Kedzie (chemist)

on such subjects as bread, its composition, changes in baking; meat, changes in cooking; vegetables, composition and food value, etc. Also a course of lectures by E. M. Shelton, Professor of Agriculture, on milk, butter, cheese, etc. Mrs. Cripps, who was in charge of sewing, gave lectures and lessons in cooking food, and a kitchen was fitted up in 1877."

This continued until 1882, when Mrs. Nellie Kedzie took charge of the department and did much towards its fuller development.

Illinois

As stated before, women were admitted to the Illinois Industrial University in 1870. Steps seem to have been taken at once to introduce lines of work of particular interest to them. The catalog of 1871–72 announces a School of Domestic Science and Art, and adds: "Instruction in this school will be begun with the next college year and will be developed as fast as practicable."

The catalog for the following year repeats this announcement, and adds: "Drawing is taught by a skilled instructor, music can be had as an 'extra,' and painting will be provided for. The full course will very nearly correspond with the course in English and the modern languages. Young ladies have free access to all the schools in the university, and several are already pursuing studies in the schools of chemistry, horticulture, architecture, and commerce." The report[1] of the meeting of the Board of Trustees, March 11, 1874, contains the following recommendation by Dr. J. M. Gregory, Regent of the University:

"I also recommend the employment of a lady instructor

[1] Report of Meeting of Board of Trustees, March 11, 1874, p. 92.

of the highest attainments and of large experience, who may in some sense stand as a preceptress to the female students. The number of these students has steadily increased till over eighty appear on our roll. They are from all parts of the state, and are admitted to all the classes of the university. But their best interests demand that there shall be in the faculty a woman of high character and culture, who shall be specially charged with their oversight. If a lady can be found who can properly open and direct the studies in the School of Domestic Economy, her employment will be of double use and value.

"In this connection I wish to repeat the recommendation that at the earliest day practicable you provide fully for a School of Domestic Economy and such other schools as the wants of our female students demand."

In accordance with this recommendation the minutes[1] of the meeting of June 10, 1874, contain the following statement: "It was resolved that Miss Lou C. Allen be appointed an instructor in the university for the year beginning September 1, 1874."

The following data supplied by Mrs. J. C. Llewellyn, a student of those days, is of interest:

"Dr. John M. Gregory, the first President of the University of Illinois, was instrumental in having girls admitted to the university. The first girls entered about two years after the opening of the university. As soon as coeducation was established, Dr. Gregory began to make known his thoughts for special instruction for girls. These ideas along the line of domestic or household science, as subsequent events have proved, were far in advance of his time.

[1] Minutes of the Meeting of the Trustees of the University of Illinois, June 10, 1874, p. 117.

"Dr. Gregory was so convincing in his arguments that the state should show the same wisdom in providing a special course of study for the future homekeepers as it had in teaching the business principles which would allow the establishment of the home itself, that the trustees decided to arrange for the special work.

"One of the first things to do was to find a woman who would undertake this work. At the suggestion of one of the trustees, Miss Lou C. Allen, preceptress of the Peoria County Normal School, was appealed to. After a conference with some of the university people, Miss Allen decided to prepare for and undertake the work. Accordingly she spent some time in the East looking up the matter and in taking instruction along certain lines.

"She appeared at the university in 1874 at the opening to the students of the main building, or University Hall, as it is now called. From the start she virtually held the position that is now held by the dean of women, and also taught the household science classes as fast as they were established. She had charge of and taught all the first gymnastic classes for girls.

"Her work as a teacher was very thorough, and showed her training in the State Normal School at Bloomington, where she graduated. Her first title at the university was 'Instructor in Domestic Science.' Later she was made 'Professor of Domestic Science.' In 1892, long after she had left, the university conferred on her the degree of M.S.

"When Dr. Gregory gave up his work as President of the university, the position of Professor of Domestic Science was also made vacant because Miss Allen had become Mrs. Gregory. A new professor for the depart-

ment was not secured at once, possibly because there was no one at hand who was so untiring in his efforts for and so farseeing in the need of such a course as Dr. Gregory had been."

The following statement[1] by Mrs. Gregory tells something of her hopes, plans, and difficulties in organizing such a department:

"This school was formally opened in Urbana, 1874, being the first college course of high grade in domestic science organized in the United States, if not in the world. With no precedent to guide, few or no text-books on the subject to furnish material aid, with an incredulous public opinion to contend against, and opposition in most unexpected quarters to meet, the undertaking at the outset seemed formidable enough. But the six years that have intervened have sufficed to overcome many obstacles and demonstrate the practical value of the work.

"The school was the outgrowth of a conviction that a rational system for the higher and better education of women must recognize their distinctive duties as women — the mothers, housekeepers, and health keepers of the world — and furnish instruction which shall fit them to meet these duties.

"As set forth in the catalogue, it was the aim of the school to give to earnest and capable young women a liberal and practical education, which should fit them for their great duties and trusts, making them the equals of their educated husbands and associates, and enabling them to bring the aids of science and culture to the all-important labors and vocations of womanhood.

[1] Special Report of Bureau of Education, 1883, p. 279.

"This school proceeded upon the assumption that the housekeeper needs education as much as the house builder, the nurse as well as the physician, the leaders of society as surely as the leaders of senates, the mother as much as the father, the woman as well as the man. We discarded the old and absurd notion that education is a necessity to man, but only an ornament to woman. If ignorance is a weakness and a disaster in the places of business where the income is won, it is equally so in the places of living where the income is expended. If science can aid agriculture and the mechanic arts to use more successfully nature's forces and to increase the amount and value of their products, it can equally aid the housekeeper in the finer and more complicated use of those forces and agencies in the home, where winter is to be changed into genial summer by artificial fires, and darkness into day by costly illumination; where the raw products of the field are to be transformed into sweet and wholesome food by a chemistry finer than that of soils, and the products of a hundred manufactories are to be put to their final uses for the health and happiness of life.

"The purpose was to provide a full course of instruction in the arts of the household and the sciences relating thereto. No industry is more important to human happiness and well-being than that which makes the home. And this industry involves principles of science as many and as profound as those which control any other human employment.

"In the fall of 1874 the writer of this article was called to take charge of this school, which then existed only in name. During the first year she gave much time to

mapping out and preparing a course of study, which was presented for the first time in the catalogue of 1875–76, substantially as follows:"

COURSE OF DOMESTIC SCIENCE AS GIVEN IN CATALOGUE OF INDUSTRIAL UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS FOR THE YEAR 1875–76

COURSE OF DOMESTIC SCIENCE

Required for degree of B.S. in school of domestic science.

First Year

1. Chemistry; trigonometry; drawing (full term); British authors.
2. Chemistry; designing and drawing; American authors.
3. Chemistry; designing and drawing; rhetoric.

Second Year

1. Botany; physiology; German or English classics.
2. Food and dietetics (simple aliments); botany and greenhouse; German or English classics.
3. Food and dietetics (compound aliments and principles of cooking, etc.); zoölogy; German or English classics.

Third Year

1. Domestic hygiene; ancient history; German or French.
2. Physics; mediæval history; German or French.
3. Physics or landscape gardening; modern history; German or French.

Fourth Year

1. Household æsthetics; mental science; history of civilization.

2. Household science; constitutional history; logic.

3. Domestic economy; usages of society, etc.; political economy; home architecture; graduating thesis or oration or essay.

A glance at the course of study outlined by Miss Allen shows that her conception of the scope of household science was far in advance of her time, and makes one regret deeply that the work so well inaugurated should not have been continued.

It is difficult to give accurate statistics concerning the beginning of these departments in all the Land Grant Colleges. The following data have been compiled from the "Organization Lists of Colleges and Experiment Stations," which begin with the year 1890:

DATA FROM ORGANIZATION LISTS 1890–1905

Published in O. E. S. Bulletins

1890. There were departments of household science in:

1. Kansas, Manhattan. Agricultural College.
2. Iowa, Ames. Agricultural College.
3. Oregon, Corvallis. Agricultural College.
4. South Dakota, Brookings. Agricultural College.

1892. There were added:

5. North Dakota, Fargo. Agricultural College.
6. Kentucky, Frankfort. Normal and Industrial Institute.[1]
7. Washington, Pullman. State College.[2]

[1] Colored.

[2] Dropped in 1895. Reorganized in 1903.

8. Utah, Logan. Agricultural College.

1893. None was added.

1894. There were added:

9. Florida, Tallahassee. State Normal and Industrial School.[1]

10. Montana, Bozeman. State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.

1895. There were added:

11. Connecticut, Storrs. Agricultural College.

12. North Carolina, Greensboro. Agricultural and Mechanical College.[2]

13. Louisiana, New Orleans. Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.[1]

1896. There were added:

14. Virginia, Hampton. Normal and Agricultural Institute.

15. Colorado, Fort Collins. Agricultural College.

16. Ohio, Columbus. State University.

1897. There were added:

17. Idaho, Moscow. State University.[3]

18. Michigan, Agricultural College. Agricultural College.

1898. There were added:

19. Nebraska, Lincoln. State University.

20. Alabama, Normal. Agricultural and Mechanical College.[1]

21. South Carolina, Orangeburg. Normal and Industrial.[1]

[1] Colored.

[2] Colored. Dropped in 1902.

[3] Dropped in 1899. Two-year course established in 1903.

1899. There were added:

22. Delaware, Dover. State College for Colored Students.

23. West Virginia, Morgantown. State University.

24. Minnesota, St. Anthony Park. Agricultural College.

1900. There were added:

25. Illinois, Urbana. State University.

26. Indiana, Lafayette. Purdue University.[1]

27. Oklahoma, Stillwater. Agricultural and Mechanical College.

28. Arizona, Tucson. State University.

29. Missouri, Jefferson City. Lincoln Institute.[2]

30. New Mexico, Mesilla Park. Agricultural College.

1901. There were added:

31. Nevada, Reno. State University.

32. Missouri, Columbia. State University.[3]

1902. There were added:

33. Oklahoma, Langston. Agricultural and Normal University.[2]

34. West Virginia, Institute.[2]

1903. There were added:

35. Tennessee, Knoxville. State University.[4]

36. Wisconsin, Madison. State University.

1904. None was added.

1905. Indiana, Lafayette. Purdue University.[1]

From these data it appears that departments existed in 1890 in Kansas, Iowa, Oregon, and South Dakota.

[1] Dropped in 1903. Reorganized in 1905.

[2] Colored.

[3] Dropped in 1904. Reorganized in 1906.

[4] Had a tentative course in 1897 and 1898.

The data concerning Kansas and Iowa have already been given. From private sources it was learned that the last named department in connection with the Agricultural College at Brookings was organized in 1887. By 1895 the number of such departments had increased to ten. At the close of 1900 the list includes the names of thirty departments, among them one at the University of Illinois. By 1905 the list had increased to thirty-six. And as we go to press, word comes of the reorganization of this department in the University of Missouri. This means that practically every one of the Land Grant Colleges in the North and West has such departments. As coeducation is not popular in the East, Home Economics is not included in the curricula of the Land Grant Colleges of that region. But Home Economics has been developed and carried on there by other agencies.[1]

How widespread and universal is the interest in the work may perhaps be indicated in part by the attention given to it by the Secretary of Agriculture in his report of June 30, 1897, in which he says:[2]

"Among the educational movements which in recent years have engaged the attention of the public none has been received with greater favor than the attempt to introduce into schools for girls and women some systematic teaching of the arts which are practiced in the home. Many of the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, together with scientific, technical, and industrial schools, now maintain a department of domestic science. Cooking and sewing are quite commonly taught in the public schools, and cooking schools for women have been

[1] See pp. 44 and 52.

[2] Year-Book, Department of Agriculture, June 30, 1897.

organized in numerous places. While useful instruction in these lines is imparted, it is generally recognized that much remains to be done before the teaching of domestic science can assume its most effective form.

"In this, as in other branches of instruction which have a vital relation to the arts and industries, the student should learn not only the best methods of *doing the things* required by the daily needs of home life, but also the reasons *why* certain things are to be done and others avoided. In other words, this teaching needs a scientific basis if it is to be thoroughly useful. In this respect domestic science is in the same category with medicine, engineering, and agriculture. It is not so very long ago that medicine and engineering were very largely empirical arts, and the schools of medicine and engineering were principally engaged in teaching men the things they were to do when they became doctors or engineers. To-day no doctor or engineer is considered fitted to pursue his profession until he has drunk deep at the fountains of science and knows well the principles on which successful practice must be based. In agriculture it is coming to be clearly seen that teaching the boy how to plow or to perform any other farm operation is not the most important service which the school can render. There must be added to this definite and careful instruction in the principles on which agricultural practice is based. The farmer must be taught to think in the lines where science has shed light upon his art if his practice is to be most thoroughly successful. Fortunately science has already much to tell the farmer which is most useful to him, and every year sees an increase in the great store from which the agricultural student can safely draw.

"Now, what has been done for the boy in agriculture and engineering needs to be done for the girl in domestic art and science. And already the beginnings of a far-reaching effort in this direction have been made. The teachers of domestic science are not content to follow a dull routine of household drudgery in their teaching. They are appealing to the scientist and specialist in lines which touch the home life to explain the principles on which home practices should rest, and to show them how intelligent taste and skill can make the home a pleasant place to live in, and how scientific knowledge can enable the home keeper to maintain the health and generally promote the physical well-being of those committed to her charge. Some progress has been made in formulating the replies which science is now able to give to inquiries relating to domestic science and in undertaking investigations with a view to greatly broadening our knowledge of these matters in the days to come.

"In the great work of helping the women of our land, nearly half of whom are toiling in the homes upon our farms, this department, it is believed, has a large duty to perform. For whatever will be effective in raising the grade of the home life on the farm, in securing the better nourishment of the farmer's family, and in surrounding them with the refinements and attractions of a well-ordered home will powerfully contribute alike to the material prosperity of the country and the general welfare of the farmers. The investigations which the department has undertaken on the food and nutrition of man have already been of much service to the teachers and students of domestic science, and it is hoped that these investigations will hereafter be still more helpful

in establishing a scientific basis for the teaching and practice of human nutrition. Through its close relations with the agricultural colleges and other institutions for industrial training of the youth, the department may incidentally aid the movement to educate women in the rational practice of the arts of the home."

It is easy to see from this report that the need of a scientific basis for the work is appreciated. Institutions supported by public funds must show to their supporters that lines of work undertaken by them have a sure foundation in some educational principles. Courses in applied science and applied art must have their foundation in the principles of pure science and follow the guidance of pure art. A still further evidence of government interest and influence in behalf of the work comes from the last report of Director A. C. True, of the Office of Experiment Stations:

"It is very important that the Department, interested as it is in agricultural education, should make a closer study of the courses of instruction in home economics or domestic science as taught in schools and colleges, especially the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, throughout the country with a view to aiding teachers in their work to a greater degree than at present. Satisfactory text-books on food and nutrition (important branches of home economics) are not available, and at present a large proportion of the teachers depend on Department publications to supply their place. There is a demand for more nutrition publications, both technical and popular, like those now issued, and also for new series on somewhat different lines. Thus simple leaflets are needed for instruction in primary grades, and charts showing in

graphic form results of nutrition investigations are very often requested, as well as directions for preparing specimens and other material illustrating the composition of food in a concrete way, as was done by the office at the St. Louis Exposition. It is also very important to gather together and place in pedagogical form the widely scattered facts relating to food principles which underlie cookery, proper food combinations, body requirements, digestibility and hygiene of food and living, and related questions. In the teaching of animal production, agronomy, and other agricultural topics, pedagogical work similar to that proposed has resulted in the formulation of very satisfactory courses of instruction."

It will thus be seen that while many agencies have contributed to the development of Home Economics, no one agency has been more effective than the Land Grant Colleges. No one agency has seen the possibilities of the subject so clearly or laid for it such broad and deep foundations. As they were among the first to recognize the need for a scientific basis, they have been most insistent that this standard should be maintained, and the department has soon realized the necessity of maintaining college ideals in its work if it would have the respect of the college community.

Agriculture and Home Economics have had much in common in their development. Both are among the newer subjects of the college curricula, so they have had to bear the questioning that is certain to be bestowed upon any new idea, the indifference of those who feel that "the old way is the best way," the scorn of the student of the classics for "bread and butter education." Even well-intentioned friends have feared that profession-

alism or the trade school idea was to dominate the college curricula.

Yet in spite of these obstacles both Agriculture and Home Economics have steadily made perceptible progress toward better educational standards. Both have dealt at first hand with the primal necessities of human beings. This practical age recognizes the necessity of a sound material and physical media for the expression of economic and esthetic ideas, and so is willing to give part of its best energies to the consideration of this earth upon which we tread, the air we breathe, the water we drink, the food we eat, the houses we live in, and the clothes we wear. The old idea that anybody can farm and that anybody can cook has well-nigh disappeared, and with it the idea that farming means plowing only and that the activities of the home are fully represented by the making of hot biscuits.

It has been well for both Agriculture and Home Economics that their origin and their materials have kept them closely in touch with the people. The spirit which animated the founding of the Land Grant Colleges was the spirit of the development of the individual that he might yield better service to the nation, that so the nation's interests might be advanced. So the final outcome of either line of work has always meant better homes, better citizens. One great factor in the development of both subjects has been the generous support afforded it and the consequent freedom to try experiments that required time and money that few private enterprises could command.

It is evident, then, that in the varying lines of work included in the term Home Economics there is room for a great variety of agencies and very diverse methods of

procedure. It would also appear that there yet remains to the Land Grant Colleges and the State Universities the task which was theirs in the beginning, viz., the strengthening and deepening of the scientific basis. It is theirs to determine the principles which underlie processes with which the world has long been familiar, and to elucidate and interpret the newer phenomena in their relations. It is their privilege to dignify labor by sending forth from their halls, not farmers merely and cooks, but educated men and women, who, because of their knowledge and skill in the practices and principles of the arts of the home, shall be able to use them as a means of expression for their best endeavors.

COOKING SCHOOLS

AMONG the agencies which have contributed to the development of the Home Economics movement, private and public cooking schools hold an important place. They have been in no small degree the makers of public sentiment. They have demonstrated beyond the shadow of a doubt the desirability and possibility of having good food well served at small expense, and so ministered to a universal need. It has been their privilege to touch at first hand the homes of all classes and conditions of people, and so to create a demand for instruction in the arts of the home in the public school. The records show that again and again cooking has been introduced into the public schools only after some public-spirited citizen had demonstrated its benefits in a private school. It has seemed desirable in this connection to give something of the beginnings of cooking schools in the United States by brief histories of some of the earlier ones.

The early work in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia is given because it seems to be typical of the movement throughout the country.

NEW YORK COOKING SCHOOL[1]

The New York Cooking School in New York City claims to be the starting point in the movement for improving cookery in this country. It had its beginning

[1] Circular of Information of the Bureau of Education, No. 4, 1879.

in 1874 in connection with the free Training School for Women, with Miss Juliet Corson as Superintendent of this department. The first year 200 persons attended the classes.

In 1875 Miss Corson organized the Ladies' Cooking Class, and in November, 1876, she opened the New York Cooking School in her home in St. Mark's Place. The plain cook's class of the New York Cooking School was incorporated in 1878, and had for its objects "the instruction in the principles of plain family cooking for young housekeepers in moderate circumstances, young women employed as domestics, and the wives and daughters of working men." These lessons proved so popular that Miss Corson thoroughly studied this part of the problem, and as a result published and distributed 50,000 copies of the pamphlet called "Fifteen Cent Dinners for Workmen's Families." She gave public lessons to working people, and found the result so satisfactory that she established cooking classes for working men's children as a part of the regular work of the school. The interest and enthusiasm manifested by the public in the work of the school are shown by the fact that from January to April, 1879, Miss Corson had taught 6,560 persons in public and private lectures and lessons. Miss Corson believed in graded schools of cookery, which should include the following branches of instruction:[1]

"(1) A class of schools for the training of children of working people in that kind of cookery most suitable for use in their own homes, the instruction to be varied in accordance with local requirements.

[1] Circular of Information of the Bureau of Education, No. 4, 1879, p. 22.

"(2) A class of schools for the instruction of plain cooks in the principles of moderately expensive cookery adapted to the needs of families in comfortable circumstances; also the appropriate and economical combination of the remains of food which has already appeared on the table into appetizing dishes. This course includes some instruction bearing on the choice of food for its economic and sanitary value.

"(3) A class of schools for high-class cookery, in which suitable persons, both male and female, may receive instruction in the more difficult branches of the culinary art, so as to be fitted to fill the positions of head cooks in large private establishments, clubs, and hotels. A department can be devoted to alimentary experiments with new food products in direct relation to their nutritive and economic value.

"(4) Normal schools of cookery, where ladies can be taught the theory and practice of domestic economy, both in reference to its practice in their own homes and in training others in this accomplishment. Proficient housekeepers and ladies who have already assumed the direction of their own households can attend this department with advantage, with the following objects in view: the use of different articles of food in relation to varying physical needs; the alteration and improvement of the dietaries of individuals following certain pursuits, in accordance with their special requirements; and the detection of the adulteration or deterioration of different foods."

MISS PARLOA'S WORK

Miss Parloa's first public lecture on cooking was given in New London, Connecticut, in 1876. Her first lectures

in Boston were given in Tremont Temple, beginning May 23, 1877, and in October Miss Parloa opened her school on Tremont Street, Boston. In the spring of 1878 she gave lectures to the pupils of Miss Morgan's school at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and at Lasell Seminary, Auburndale, Massachusetts. In the summer of 1878 she went to Europe and visited schools in England and France. In 1879 she gave lectures in the cooking school started by the Woman's Educational Association at Boston. In August, 1879, a school was conducted by Miss Parloa in connection with the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle and National Sunday School Assembly, held at Chautauqua, New York. Miss Parloa gives an account of the beginning of her work as follows:

"The beginning of my work was accidental and did not have the commercial side in view. I was teaching in a little country school in Florida, and interested in all the people there. There seemed to be need of bringing all the people, children and parents, together at least once a week, and we tried to do it in the Sunday school in the sparsely settled part of the town. We felt the need of some sort of a musical instrument, and I tried to raise the money by asking various friends and acquaintances for it, and got quite a little that way; finally I gave a talk on cookery, prepared a paper carefully describing the processes of digestion, etc., and then with a little gas stove illustrated some things. The talk was given in the vestry of a church, and with what I had already collected and the money received from this lecture I had nearly enough money to buy a small cabinet organ. Two of my friends gave the amount lacking, which was $10, and we bought the organ for the little Sunday school. After

this lecture, so many of my friends urged me to do this thing that I thought seriously of it, and the next spring, at the end of the school year, when all teachers were asked to make their applications for the next year, I asked the school board to hold the school for me a few months until I was sure as to whether I would return; they kindly did it. Then, to test whether there was interest in the work and if I had the proper qualifications for it, I arranged for a series of lectures in Boston in one of the lecture rooms in Tremont Temple.

"The interest seemed to warrant my undertaking the work, and I decided to open a school in the fall, 1877, which I did on Tremont Street. The interest was very great, and all the time I had my school in Boston I had more than I possibly could do; but naturally the expenses were great, and the first year, although I worked so very hard, my expenses were $500 over my income from my work. Afterwards my expenses were not so great and the income was more than the outgo. Personally I do not think that the commercial side appealed to me very greatly, but naturally if I spend money for a work I must earn enough to pay my debts. The work to me has been, and still is, most interesting; and I feel that it is one of the largest and broadest works a woman can do, and if I had the time, strength, and means I would devote myself to it still. I feel that while a great deal has been done along these lines that it is only the beginning. It is a magnificent work for any young woman to take up.

"Among my pupils during my first school year (1877) in Boston I had a Miss Lizzie Devereux, a cultured girl, who was an excellent pupil. She at that time was housekeeper for a lady in Brookline. A club, either the New Century or the Philadelphia, I do not remember which,

wrote asking me if I could send them a teacher if they started a cooking school, and I suggested Miss Devereux if they could get her. She went to Philadelphia and took charge of the school for a year, after which Mrs. Rorer assumed control."

THE BOSTON COOKING SCHOOL[1]

In 1872 an interesting association was formed in Boston known as the Woman's Education Association. "The formation of standing committees on industrial, intellectual, esthetic, moral, and physical education expressed the desire of the founders that the better education of women should be understood in the broadest sense."

As a result of the work of the Committee on Industrial Education a cooking school was started March, 1879, which in four years was incorporated as the Boston Cooking School, with Mrs. Sarah E. Hooper as president. Mrs. Hooper was a member of the Woman's Education Association, and chairman of the Industrial Committee, and it is largely due to her work and enthusiasm that the first incorporated cooking school in America owes its origin.

The primary object of the school was to give instruction in cooking to a class of women who would make it practically useful. But after the first season it was found difficult to create the interest among that class, so it was decided to open the school to all who wished to attend. The result was a large increase of attendance. The first teacher was Miss Johanna Sweeney, who had been con-

[1] Report of Woman's Education Association, 1893. Data furnished by Mrs. Sarah E. Hooper. Report of Annual Meeting of Boston Cooking School, 1883.

ducting private classes in cooking. She had taken few lessons, but "was a born cook." Miss Parloa, who was giving public demonstrations at Tremont Temple, was also engaged to give weekly demonstrations in addition to Miss Sweeney's work.

In December, 1879, Mrs. D. A. Lincoln became principal of the school, and from that time until now her name has been prominent in the work. Other people connected with the school as principals are Miss Ida Maynard, Mrs. C. M. Dearborn, Miss Fannie M. Farmer, and Miss M. W. Howard.

Soon after the establishment of the Boston Cooking School it was found necessary to have a normal class to supply teachers for other cooking schools, and for many of the public schools. A service was rendered to the public schools by Mrs. Lincoln, who prepared a course of lessons in cookery for the pupils in the Boston public school.

The Boston Cooking School existed as a separate institution until it was made a part of Simmons College in 1902.

MRS. RORER'S WORK

Mrs. Rorer gives the following account of her work:

"The New Century Club had opened a school of cookery (1878) under the care of a Miss Devereux, a pupil of Miss Parloa, and a Miss Sweeney, a pastry cook in Boston. A cousin, who was chairman of the Committee of Household Science in the New Century Club, called upon me and urged me to join the first class for the good of my family, which I did. I, at that time, was studying chemistry, or pharmacy, with the idea of occupying the first position of this kind given to a woman in Philadelphia.

I was also doing some preparatory work for the medical course in the Woman's College. I had not matriculated. I entered the cooking class, and I became so interested, and I saw so many possibilities coming from a school of this kind, that I immediately gave up my other work and went into this heart and soul. In less than a year I had given a course of cooking lectures, pure and simple, to the fourth year students at the Woman's Medical College, and I had the honor of illustrating the first course of lectures given by a woman in the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia. Dean Bodley was asked to give a scientific course on household science, and I illustrated these for her. From that time to this, as you know, I have never wanted for an audience. I have never been out of the work; I have never had any hindrances; on the contrary, it seemed to me that everybody welcomed any knowledge that they could get along practical lines. At the end of my first year Miss Devereux retired — her health broke down during the winter — and I was elected by the New Century Club to take her place. I taught for the Club for two years. A number of physicians in Philadelphia, realizing the importance of the work, asked me to withdraw from the Club and start an independent school. I did, and the first year I enrolled seventy-four practice pupils; I gave four demonstration lectures during the week, with audiences ranging from 1,000 to 5,000. There never was any drawback to any of the work after that. I named the school the Philadelphia School. It continued for twenty-five years."

HOME ECONOMICS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

UNDER this heading no attempt is made to give more than the merest beginnings of some forms of hand work which are found in the public schools.

Sewing seems to be the first form in which manual training for girls was introduced into the public school system.[1] The early records of Boston, Massachusetts, indicate that after the public schools were opened to girls in 1798 they had instruction in needlework from their regular teachers. In 1835 it was taught to the girls in the second and third grammar grades, and in 1854 it was extended to the fourth grammar grade by permission of the Board of Education.

In 1872[2] the legislature of Massachusetts passed an act legalizing sewing and other industrial education. By this act Massachusetts claims the leadership in public industrial education in this country.

In 1873[3] Mr. Robert Swan, of the Winthrop School of Boston, was instrumental in having a regular teacher of sewing appointed for his school.

From this beginning the teaching of sewing in the public schools has gradually spread.

[1] Report of Massachusetts Commission on Manual Training and Industrial Education, 1893, pp. 51, 52.

[2] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1873, p. 169.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. cxxxix, cxl.

DRAWING

In 1870[1] the Massachusetts legislature passed an act which made drawing obligatory in the public schools of the state. This was the beginning of a vigorous movement toward its introduction throughout the country. Drawing paved the way for other industrial training, and aside from sewing was the first form in which it was introduced.

KINDERGARTEN

In 1855 Mrs. Carl Schurz[2] opened a kindergarten in Watertown, Wisconsin. As a result of this undertaking Miss Elizabeth Peabody started a kindergarten in Boston in 1860.

In 1867 Miss Elizabeth Peabody,[3] Mrs. George R. Russel, and Mrs. Hemenway and others petitioned the school board of Boston for a kindergarten, and in 1870 an experimental one was established in connection with the public school, but was given up in 1879.

In 1878 Mrs. Pauline Shaw[4] began her work of founding kindergartens in Boston, and in 1887 sixteen kindergartens that had been supported by her were handed over to the public school system.

Boston,[5] St. Louis, San Francisco, Philadelphia, and New York City were the centers of the early kindergarten work.

[1] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1873, pp. 170, 171, ci–cv; History of Education in the United States, N. M. Butler, p. 712.

[2] Boone's History of Education in the United States, p. 333.

[3] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1877–88, p. 840.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 820.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 840.

About 1890[1] manual training was introduced into the primary grades in Boston. Until this attempt the field between the kindergarten and the departments of sewing, cooking, and woodwork in the grammar school was an untried one so far as manual training was concerned.

Massachusetts takes the lead in introducing manual training for girls into public school system, but New Jersey, New York, Connecticut, Washington (District of Columbia), and Illinois were among the earlier ones.

COOKING

In 1885 two schools of cookery were opened in Boston which drew their pupils from the public schools. One was at North Bennet Street, Boston, and the other at Tennyson Street, Boston.

The Work of the North Bennet Street Industrial School[2]

"At the risk of repeating too often what has been said many times already, it is perhaps well to begin every report of a year's work by stating the object of this undertaking. The North Bennet Street Industrial School exists primarily for the purpose of giving manual training to large numbers of pupils of varying ages, and it does this with the constant hope that by its work and experiments the day may be hastened when such training may be more fully incorporated into the public school system of Boston.

"This work is founded in the new but growing faith that 'the whole boy should be sent to school and not a

[1] Report of the Massachusetts Commission on Manual Training and Industrial Education, 1893, p. 37; Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1877–88, pp. 841, 842.

[2] From a report for 1887–88 lent by Mrs. Ellen H. Richards.

part of him'; that it is not enough to train the intellect alone, by what have been well called 'mental gymnastics,' but that the eye and the hand are together the most trustworthy leaders of the brain; that 'all the members' must hereafter be trained together, so that the eye shall no longer say to the hand 'we have no need of thee.'

"The work of this school immediately following the last year's report was the summer vacation school. This undertaking is regarded as one of great importance, securing, as it does, occupation and wholesome influences for large numbers of idle children during those weeks of summer when there is no other school. Unusual effort was made last summer to hold the interest of the children, and thus to secure greater regularity of attendance than has hitherto been possible in this season of freedom from all restraint.

"The result was, on the whole, good, allowance being made for 'Country Week' excursions, picnics, etc. The work accomplished was of a better quality than ever before, especially good results being obtained in work with the jackknife, with small tools in the carpenter's shop, in sewing, dress cutting and making, and, with very young classes, in clay modeling. Two very successful classes in cooking were carried on here, for the first time, during vacation school, taking in girls who could not join the winter classes, forty-five girls receiving a course of fifteen lessons each during July and August. Some effective lessons in mental arithmetic, involving quick mental work with small numbers, were a new and satisfactory feature of the summer work, coming sometimes as an enlivening break between sewing and calisthenics.

"More than 1,000 tickets of admission to the vacation

school were eagerly asked for and taken, of which 796 were presented; and those who understand the peculiar difficulties and discouragements of vacation work will probably consider the result a successful one on learning that a general attendance of 340 was obtained. A contribution of $755 towards the expense of the vacation school was gratefully received, through Mrs. James T. Fields, from some friends especially interested in the work of the Associated Charities in Ward 7, with the condition that not more than $400 should be spent for the summer of 1887, leaving $355 for 1888.

"The regular school year began here, as usual, early in September, with classes in carpentry (two departments), printing, shoemaking, modeling, and cooking. The number enrolled from public schools during this year is 1,112, a gain of 234 over last year. There are also evening classes, numbering 208. Dressmaking is taught on five evenings of the week, with an increasing demand for places in the already full classes. There are evening classes in carpentry, printing, and shoemaking; an adult evening class in cooking; and a normal class in the use of woodworking tools has lately been started on one evening of the week. We have, thus, a showing of 1,320 pupils in some form of manual training weekly, as compared with 972 last year.

"A new department of elementary carpentry has been added this year, with tools and problems adapted to the powers of boys under fourteen years of age. This meets a long-felt want, the need being greatest where children have not had the benefit of the kindergarten, wherein all manual training has its natural beginning, and even for those who have had this start there has been an

injurious break between the ages of six and fourteen. Here the department of clay modeling also does an important work in preparing the way for the use of tools and for the handling of less plastic material. It is worthy of note that the manual work, in these departments, of boys from the ungraded classes — those exceptionally backward with books — compares favorably with that of pupils standing far above them in school.

"But this institution is not merely a manual training school. The commodious building makes it possible that other work of a most interesting character should be undertaken, and the evening brings large numbers here who come for gymnastics and military drill, with special instructors, for sewing, recreation, reading, and social intercourse. Much valuable volunteer assistance is given in connection with this part of the work, and the whole number enrolled for these evening recreations is 660.

"It is impossible to give an adequate idea of the far-reaching influence of this part of the work. The visible effects of military drill have been such as to astonish even its warmest advocates. Boys who entered a year ago, rough in manner and careless in appearance, have been transformed into, apparently, quiet, self-respecting youths, quick to obey and eager to learn, filling positions as drillmasters of raw recruits from time to time with pride and self-possession.

"It is needless to dwell upon the advantages of gymnastic work for both boys and girls. The gymnasium for girls has been under the charge of a medical director, who has made it her special aim to give such exercises as would counteract the evil effects of confining work in close rooms and factories.

"The game clubs are in charge of a number of ladies, who are giving most untiring, faithful, and loving service to them. The quiet, elevating influence of this work upon boys is shown by their quick response to any suggestion from their 'teachers,' as they like to call these ladies, and by the eager almost chivalrous way in which they try to be of use. Some of the boys are undoubtedly making an honest effort to overcome the excessive use of tobacco, and profanity is now never heard in the club.

"There are also social clubs for girls, where sewing, making of buttonholes, embroidery, knitting, and crocheting are taught. A simple course in botany, given by a young lady who has come from Cambridge every week for this purpose, has proved most interesting to some of the older girls, who have also enjoyed some delightful imaginary trips to Rome, Venice, Algeria, and other distant lands, by means of photographs and vivid descriptions; while reading aloud, games, music, and dancing are always a welcome rest and recreation to those who have been shut up all day in workshops.

"During Christmas week the young ladies in charge of the Thursday night game club gave a concert and Christmas tree, not only to their own special boys, but to all the clubs that met in the building on other evenings, and a happy throng of over two hundred received some remembrance from the gay, sparkling, well-filled tree.

"Encouragement for the hope that out of our experimental work the cause of public education may reap permanent benefit is found in the fact that as a result of such efforts the teaching of cooking has this year been partially established in the public schools of Boston, the

initial steps in this movement having been taken in this school. It is interesting to notice how rapidly this leaven has worked. In 'School Document No. 3, 1885,' which contains a report of the 'Committee on a Manual Training School,' one may read that on the 27th day of February, 1885, a hearing was given by this committee to those supposed to be interested in the subject of manual training, and that the matter immediately under consideration at that time was whether pupils from public schools might be allowed to accept the offer of Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw to receive manual training in the North Bennet Street Industrial School. Cooking, housekeeping, and laundry work were offered to girls, and printing, carpentry, and shoemaking to boys. The same document shows that within a month, March, 1885, an order was passed giving permission to pupils to accept this offer, provided that parents should 'so request,' etc. Mrs. Richards of the Institute of Technology was then, as always, using her valuable influence to further this cause, as was also Miss Crocker; and in May, 1885, a few small classes in cookery were started in the North Bennet Street Industrial School, under the able instruction of Miss Amy Barnes. The pupils were from the Hancock School. This was the entering wedge. In the following July classes in cookery were formed in a vacation school in Tennyson Street, supported by Mrs. Hemenway and under the efficient direction of Miss Homans, with Miss Amy Barnes as teacher. This school was much visited, and made a strong impression on the public mind; and in October of the same year, 1885, two schools of cookery were simultaneously established, drawing their classes from the public schools, and each giving instruction to 150 pupils weekly as part of

the regular school work. One of these, in Tennyson Street, was supported by Mrs. Hemenway, and the other was carried on by the North Bennet Street Industrial School. It should here be said that the department of cookery in this school has always been largely indebted to the generosity of Miss Sarah B. Fay, who has this year assumed its entire support. In the next year, 1886, a school of cookery was established, by private enterprise, in Jamaica Plain, and the School Board of Boston started one in South Boston, so that 484 girls were then receiving lessons in cookery. In 1887 we had all learned how to double our numbers, with a very small increase of expense. The city had established another 'school kitchen' in Roxbury, one was under way in Charlestown, and 1,800 girls of the public schools of Boston were having, or had had, a course of twenty lessons in cookery during the school year.

"The subject of cooking schools must not be dismissed without allusion to the great need of thoroughly educated teachers, and to the important service which Mrs. Hemenway and Miss Homans are at this moment rendering in establishing a normal class, with Mrs. Lincoln as teacher. The value of this is fully appreciated only by those who have seen how easily the whole subject may be degraded or exalted by the standard of the teacher.

"In the hurried preparation of a form in invitation to this meeting, it was stated that about 1,400 persons were in attendance here, weekly; this was based on estimates made in 1887, and was known to be within the facts. An accurate estimate now made to March, 1888, shows an attendance in all departments, exclusive of kindergarten and nursery, of 2,321, as compared with 1,500 last year, and this with a very small increase of expense.

"It is believed that private experimental work in this field will only make itself practically felt when it can point out good methods of dealing with large classes without too great cost. Showy and expensive methods will always cripple and retard the cause. The free kindergartens of Boston, the late offer of which to the city has met with such a sympathetic reception, perfected as they are after years of careful work, furnish another striking illustration of the kind of service this school means to render.

"We ask for more manual training, because we agree with Professor Woodward when he says, that 'in most of our schools there is too much sameness and monotony, too much intellectual weariness and torpor.' 'Did you ever see a child,' he asks, 'whose mind was nauseated with spelling books, lexicons, and grammars, and an endless hash of the two doctors, Johann Pestalozzi and Friedrich Froebel? And did you watch the magic influence of a diet of Things prescribed by the former, in place of Words, and a little vigorous Doing in place of Talking under the direction of the latter?'

"It is because we have profited by such hints as this that this school stands, here, a perpetual plea for the broader and more rational education of all our children. 'All our children!' And yet one is tempted to say a special word for those unlucky boys, with good perceptive powers, but whose strength 'lies not in the direction of memory'; the boys who, General Walker tells us, are 'plowed under, in our schools, as not worth harvesting.' 'And yet,' he says, 'it not infrequently happens that the boy who is regarded as dull, because he cannot master an artificial system of grammatical analysis, isn't worth

a cent for giving a list of the kings of England, doesn't know and doesn't care what are the principal productions of Borneo, has a better pair of eyes, a better pair of hands, a better judgment, and, even by the standards of the merchant, the manufacturer, and the railroad president, a better head than his master. Now the manual training school proposes to cultivate and harvest both kinds of boys.' Finally, we are reminded by another enthusiastic educator, that 'the universe has two spheres: one of matter, the other of mind. To be prepared for one's work in both, one must be trained in both. Perception, memory, and judgment are to be developed, cultivated, trained. These mental faculties, however divided and subdivided, are to be treated in a rational manner, that the mind may possess what we call POWER. This is the choicest fruit of education.'"

Tennyson Street School[1]

"In the summer of 1883 an Industrial Vacation School was opened in the Starr King Schoolhouse, Boston, not for the purpose of keeping girls out of the streets, nor of pleasantly entertaining them indoors, but of finding out, if possible, by practical experiment, if there were any kind of manual training important for every girl to have regardless of her social status. And finding this out, to ask the privilege of trying the experiment in connection with the public schools, with a hope that ultimately it should be made a part of the curriculum upon the ground that for any instruction of general utility public money might be legitimately expended.

"This vacation school was continued during the sum-

[1] Material furnished by Miss Amy M. Homans.

mers of 1883 and 1884. In June, 1885, it was determined to ask not only for the use of a schoolhouse, but for the privilege of fitting up one of its brick basement rooms for a kitchen. It was thought that if instruction in practical cooking could be given successfully to large classes in a public schoolhouse, even at private expense, the privilege would be granted to the girls of the grammar schools, in the section wherein this kitchen was, of receiving instruction in cooking during the school year. After consideration, the superintendent of buildings permitted two-thirds only of the room asked for to be converted into a kitchen, stipulating that there should be no expense to the city, and however great the outlay required to do this, the room should be restored to its original condition before the opening of the school in September, if so ordered. To this cheerful assent was given.

"The experiment was tried. Among the 300 visitors to this school, in which cooking was but one of the many branches of manual training taught, were the superintendent of schools and several members of the school board. Notably, two of the manual training school committee, who by chance chose the day upon which a dinner — a most savory meal — was served, for their visit.

"These gentlemen dined, and it has been hinted that that dinner had a mighty influence upon the decision that that same committee had to make in September, at which time a hearing was given to persons interested in industrial training. At this meeting the management of the school in Tennyson Street appeared, and asked leave to enlarge the kitchen in the Starr King Schoolhouse to full size of basement room and to maintain a cooking school therein, which should be attended by 150 girls

from the South End grammar schools, and which should be known as Boston School Kitchen No. 1, as it would be the first school kitchen in Boston and the first in any public schoolhouse in the United States.

"Accordingly in school committee, October 26, 1885, it was voted to permit girls of the Everett, Franklin, Horace Mann (a school for deaf mutes), Hyde, and Winthrop Schools to attend Boston School Kitchen No. 1, provided that the parents or guardians of the pupils so requested in writing, the pupils to attend on probation under the direction of the manual training committee, who presented at the same meeting rules and regulations governing the schools of cooking (School Document No. 15, October 27, 1885).

"Just here I would say a word concerning the cost of this first kitchen. The exact amount is not necessary to know. It will be sufficient to tell you that the money expended for School Kitchen No. 1 would, with experience gained, equip six kitchens quite as satisfactorily, and in some respects more so. This is an evidence of the great value of private coöperation in experimental work. It is safe to say that no city would feel justified in experimenting to this extent with public money. The great danger, and perhaps the only one, to any city in accepting private help is that when the time is ripe for the city to take entire charge of the work the individuals who have given the help may find it difficult to withdraw all support, not only financial, but moral.

"In Boston School Kitchen No. 1 there were employed two teachers, who alternated in their teaching, as did the classes, thus keeping the same children.

"The school grew in popularity with pupils, parents,

masters, and assistants. Of four masters and twenty-seven assistants represented in School Kitchen No. 1, not one withheld his or her hearty coöperation, notwithstanding the fact that as no place has been made for instruction for cooking in the course of study prescribed, there was at first great interruption and doubtless annoyance occasioned. These masters and teachers regarded the work as coördinate with their own, and so sent their girls, stimulated by their own enthusiasm, to do their best to prove what the pioneers in this work claimed — that its underlying principle is true development of womanhood, that its outgrowth is responsibility and industry, which cheers and gladdens every moment that it occupies, and keeps off the evil one by repelling him at the outposts instead of admitting him into a struggle in the citadel.

"The school kitchen during the first year was visited by about seven hundred persons, many of whom were educators from various parts of the country. All were enthusiastic, all pronounced the work successful; but they who bore the responsibility knew that its real success, its ultimate acceptance by the school board, would never be gained until it was placed upon that basis of economy that should recommend and make it possible, not only for Boston, but for every city in the United States.

"Much earnest, anxious thought was given the subject, and it was decided that it needed no more physical strength for a teacher of cooking than for a general teacher, therefore but one teacher instead of two should be employed and a simpler plan of work devised. In December, 1885, the chairman of the manual training school committee recommended in his report that the

expense and management of School Kitchen No. 1 be assumed by the school board; but, owing to the reduction by the city council of the school appropriation, private support was again offered in order that the amount appropriated for cooking schools might be devoted to the establishment and maintenance of the school in South Boston, where it was greatly desired. This continued support was the more gladly offered, as it afforded the management an opportunity to work out the more economical plan. Therefore in October School Kitchen No. 1 was reopened with classes of the same number of girls from the same schools as the previous year. School Kitchen No. 2, maintained and managed by the city, was established a little later, and the Eliot School Association established a school in a public schoolhouse in Jamaica Plain. Today, after thirteen years, there are nineteen central school kitchens in Boston, attended by every girl in the seventh and eighth grades.

"As a result of this private experiment, at the end of two years there were four central school kitchens, giving to 1,400 girls a course of twenty lessons each in the school year of forty weeks, at the minimum cost of $28\frac{1}{3}$ cents for twenty lessons, or about $1\frac{2}{5}$ cents per head per lesson plus the teacher's salary. Every family was visited. Four mothers gave unfavorable opinions of the school. One hundred forty-six most favorable. Several made pertinent suggestions and gave just criticisms, which were gratefully received. The second winter 170 visits were made upon the mothers of the children in the schools. Of these two had no opinion to give, four were unfavorable, and 164 heartily in favor and most desirous that it should be made compulsory.

"It is interesting to note that as an outgrowth of the work in Boston cooking has been introduced into the majority of the large cities in the country, and that Pratt and Drexel Institutes have established training schools for teachers, not larger nor more thorough than that of the Mary Hemenway Department of Household Arts in the Framingham Normal School. It is fitting and interesting, and ought to be encouraging to women who are about to enter upon life work, to know that every effort of Mrs. Hemenway for the public good has been recognized, notably the introduction of sewing, of cooking, and of gymnastics into the Boston schools. The schools established and maintained so many years by her in North Carolina and Virginia have been accepted by state or city, and are now controlled and carried on by them.

"The circumstances of our lives will not make it possible for us to do what she has done, but the results of her life work may, and ought to be, an inspiration to every one of us."

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